

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS AND THEIR PEOPLE.

Mr. LODGE presented the following:

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS AND THEIR PEOPLE (REPRINTED FROM THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE FOR MARCH, 1904), BY HENRY GANNET, CHIEF GEOGRAPHER UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY AND ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF THE PHILIPPINE CENSUS.

MARCH 1, 1904.—Ordered to be printed.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS AND THEIR PEOPLE.

The Philippine Islands are on the other side of the earth, 10,000 miles away. Lying near the equator, between 5° and 21° north latitude, the sun passes over them in April and May on its way north, and in July and August on the return journey, while in June the shadows are short and point to the south. It is always summer, always warm, and a minimum of clothing is constantly the fashion. The trade wind blows steadily from the northeast from November to May, and the monsoon from the southwest from June to October.

The islands are numbered by thousands, but no one knows how many there are, for the known number is constantly increasing as more accurate surveys of the coast are made. They range in size from Luzon, the largest and most populous, 41,000 square miles in area, and Mindanao, nearly as large, down to the myriads of little rocks just above the water at high tide. The islands of Mindoro, Samar, Leyte, Bohol, Cebu, Negros, Panay, Paragua, and Masbate exceed 1,000 square miles in area each, and there are 31 which exceed 100 square miles each.

The shores of these islands are fringed with coral reefs which rise abruptly and irregularly from the depths of the sea, making navigation extremely difficult and dangerous. The charts prepared in Spanish times, mainly by Spanish authorities, are, as a rule, incorrect and often very misleading, so that it is necessary for shipmasters to use the utmost caution in approaching the coast or entering harbors. Our Coast Survey has been at work for the past three years, but although working as rapidly as possible, consistent with accuracy, it has as yet charted but few of the harbors. The magnitude of the work may be appreciated when it is understood that the coast of the Philippine Islands is much greater in extent than the entire coast of the main body of the United States, excluding Alaska, and that the coasts are much more

intricate than our own. At present no shipmaster thinks of entering a Philippine harbor, unless it be one with which he has familiarized himself, without carefully feeling his way by sounding.

Throughout northern and central Luzon runs a range of mountains parallel to the Pacific coast and closely bordering it, known as Sierra Madre. This range rises to heights of 4,000 to 5,000 feet, the highest portion being in the north. West of this is the broad valley of Cagayan River, one of the largest streams of the island, which flows northward, entering the sea at Aparri. This valley is the principal tobacco region of the Philippines, and is fairly well settled with about 200,000 people. For two-thirds of its length the river is navigable for small boats, which carry the products to Aparri.

West of this valley is a mountain system called Caraballos Occidentalis. This system consists of a main range with many subordinate spurs and branch ranges, on the east separating branches of the Cagayan River, and on the west running down to the coast, separating from one another the streams which flow directly into China Sea. Many peaks of this range exceed 6,000 feet in height, and a few are more than 7,000 feet. The spurs from this range come down closely to the coast, leaving only a narrow strip of cultivable land along the shore.

West of the Sierra Madre, in central Luzon, is a great depression or valley extending from Lingayan Gulf southward through Manila Bay and the Laguna de Bay to the highlands separating Cavite province from Batangas. This valley has a length of nearly 150 miles, with an average breadth of at least 40 miles. Its floor is nearly level and throughout a large part of the area is raised but little above sea level. Much of it, especially near Manila Bay and Lingayan Gulf, consists of low alluvial lands but a few feet above tide, intersected by numerous bayous or estuaries. These regions are in fact delta plains formed by the Pampanga and Agno rivers. Manila Bay is a part of this depression, as is also the shallow Laguna de Bay, which nowhere has a depth exceeding 20 feet. Indeed, the Laguna de Bay is so shallow that at low water the steam launches which traverse it stir up the mud from its bottom almost constantly with their screws. This lake is drained by the River Pasig to Manila Bay.

This great valley is the most densely settled part of the Philippines, containing nearly one-fourth of the civilized people of the islands.

West of this valley rises the Zambales Range, which, with the Mari-veles peaks at the southern end, forms the backbone of the Zambalan Peninsula.

South of this great valley of central Luzon, in Batangas Province, is Lake Taal, which occupies the crater of an enormous extinct volcano, whose rim is strongly marked on all sides except on the southwest, where a small stream breaks through and drains the lake into China Sea. An active volcano rises as an island from the middle of the lake to the height of 1,000 feet.

In the southern part of central Luzon are numerous volcanoes, most of them extinct. Southeastern Luzon has a very irregular outline and contains a number of short ranges and mountains of no great height. The greater elevations of this part of the island consist of active or extinct volcanoes. Of the former the most notable is the beautiful and symmetrical cone of Mayon, which rises from the shores of Albay Gulf to the height of 8,000 feet. This has been in eruption several times within the historic period, and has done great damage to native

towns and villages situated about its base. Another fine volcano, not now active, is Mount Isarog, which rises over 6,000 feet above the town of Nueva Caceras.

The island of Mindoro is little known except along the coast, as settlement has not penetrated the interior and few explorers have been far inland. It was crossed last spring at its widest part by Captain Offley, the governor of the province. The main topographic feature of the island is a range of mountains running from the northwest corner southeastward and then southward to the southern point, with broad spurs extending to the coast on either side. Its highest summit, Mount Halcon, has an altitude exceeding 8,000 feet.

The surface of Samar, the most eastern of the Visayan Islands, is exceedingly broken, but nowhere rises to a great elevation. Probably no summit of more than 2,000 feet in height is to be found on the island. The island of Leyte has a central range extending the length of the island from north to south, with a few summits exceeding 3,000 feet. Bohol, also of the Visayan group, is nowhere high, although most of the island is hilly. Cebu is characterized by a continuous range running from the northern to the southern end of the island, the greatest elevation on the broadest part of the island not exceeding 2,300 feet. The island of Negros has a range running throughout its length, but without great elevation, excepting in the volcano Canlaon or Malaspina, which is said to have an altitude of more than 8,000 feet. Panay, the last of the large islands of the Visayan group, is dominated by a range of mountains extending from the northwest to the southwest point of the island not far from the coast. This range, which furnishes the east boundary of the province of Antique, has many summits exceeding 6,000 feet. From a point near the middle of this range there extends a subordinate range which, running east and northeast, separates the provinces of Capiz and Iloilo.

The long, narrow island of Paragua has a mountain range extending its length from northeast to southwest, with peaks ranging from 5,000 to 6,000 feet in altitude.

Of the great island of Mindanao most of the information we have comes from the explorations of the Jesuit fathers, who, in Spanish days, traversed it widely. It is known that along the Pacific coast of this island extends a range quite continuously from Bilan Point southward to Point San Agustin. West of this lies the broad valley of the Agusan River, peopled by a few Christians and many wild people. On the west side of this valley rises a succession of ranges trending nearly north and south, extending, with some breaks, down the west side to the Gulf of Davao, and separating it from the broad, fertile valley of the Cotabato River. This river heads north of the center of the island and flows, first, nearly south into a number of shallow lakes. These lakes outflow to the northwestward by a great river, still known as the Cotabato, which has built up a delta on the shores of Celebes Sea. Another range trending northwest and southeast separates this valley from the coast. In the interior of the island is a curious lake, Lanao. It has a length of 20 miles nearly north and south and an average breadth of 10 or 12 miles. Its outlet is northwest to Iligan Bay. Its surface lies at an altitude above the sea of 2,200 feet and the land rises abruptly from it on all sides to several hundred feet, that on the south being 800 feet above the surface of the water. Around this lake are grouped in villages 75,000 Moros, the largest and probably the densest

settlement of these people in the Archipelago. From this lake there runs, first westward and then southwestward, down the peninsula of Zamboanga a range of mountains which terminates above the town of Zamboanga at the end of the peninsula.

These, in brief, are the leading topographic features of the larger islands. Summarizing, it may be said that the islands are almost everywhere mountainous and densely clothed in tropical vegetation. They are probably as beautiful islands as exist upon the globe, and their possibilities under civilization and careful and intelligent cultivation are almost infinite.

THE CLIMATE.

The temperature in the Archipelago is at all times high, the mean annual temperature being throughout not far from 80° F., but at least in the coast regions is never excessive and is without any great variation during the year or during the day. It rises a few degrees only above the mean of the year in the spring and early summer months, and falls a few degrees lower than that average in the winter months. The annual succession of the temperature is pretty well shown by the thermometric record at Manila, where there is a range in the monthly mean temperatures of the year of only 7°—i. e., from 77° in January to 84° in May. There is no extreme of heat. Temperatures of 100° are almost unknown, having occurred only twice in sixteen years, but for months the maximum temperature of the day may be above 90°. The lowest temperature on record is 60°, showing an extreme range in sixteen years of but 40°.

Now, to show what these figures mean, compare them with similar figures for the city of Washington. The highest temperature on record there is 104°, which is 4° above the highest in Manila. The lowest temperature ever suffered in Washington is —14°, not less than 74° lower than the lowest at Manila. The extreme range of temperature in Washington is 118° and in Manila 40°. The range of monthly mean temperatures in Washington is 46°—i. e., the mean temperature of July is 46° higher than that of January, while in Manila the monthly mean range is only 7°.

There is no part of the year when clothing need be worn for protection against cold. White cotton suits are at all times in season, for the temperature is always above the perspiration point.

The diurnal range of temperature at points near the seacoast is slight, rarely exceeding 15°, while the average for the year is only 11°. The uniformity of temperature in the Archipelago is, of course, due to its insular character, giving it a sea climate.

The relative humidity of the atmosphere is everywhere and at all times great, being commonly at least 75 per cent, while at certain seasons the air is practically saturated with moisture much of the time.

THE WINDS AND TYPHOONS.

The wind system of the Archipelago is simple. From November to June the trade wind blows continuously from easterly quarters. With the beginning of July the southwest monsoon begins and blows continuously until October, except as it may be interrupted by those storms known as typhoons, or, in the Tagalog language, "baguios." The monsoon is simply an annual land and sea breeze, produced by

the change in the relative temperatures of the ocean and the land. In the winter, the sea being the warmer, the wind blows from the land, and thus here coincides with and reinforces the northeast trades. In the summer the land is hotter and the wind, setting toward it, forms the southwest monsoon.

Typhoons are whirling storms which commonly originate in the Pacific, east of the Philippines, and take a westward course, turning north and finally northeast and passing off into the north Pacific. Most of them cross the Philippines on their westward course and turn north in the China Sea.

Their origin is probably in the region where the trade wind, blowing constantly from the eastward, meets the southwest monsoon. It may be by conflict between these two opposing air currents in this region that the whirl is set up. At first this whirl travels in the course of the trades, as they are the dominant wind, but as it goes westward the influence of the monsoon becomes relatively the stronger, and the typhoon yields to it and passes off in its direction to the northeast. Hence the monsoon season is the season of typhoons.

Typhoons resemble in course, character, and violence the so-called West India hurricanes. They are of frequent occurrence, often following one another closely, at intervals of but a few days, and many of them have been very violent and destructive.

The rainfall of the Archipelago closely follows the winds. The general *modus operandi* of rain making is very simple and scarcely needs repetition here. Air coming off the sea is always and everywhere practically saturated with moisture. On reaching the land, if the latter is colder than the sea, and therefore colder than the air currents, which have the temperature of the sea, it is chilled, and hence, unable to hold in solution so much moisture, deposits a part of it as rain. This is especially the case if these air currents are forced up over mountain ranges, since in rising they are necessarily chilled.

The Philippine Islands are mountainous, and such air currents coming to them from any direction are forced upward to pass over the mountains into cooler regions. Hence there is a heavy precipitation on the windward side of the islands, while the leeward side, being under descending air currents already partly deprived of their moisture, receive little or no rain. The alternating winds of the Philippines, the trades and the monsoons, thus produce alternating wet and dry seasons.

On the east coasts of Luzon, Samar, and Mindanao, which face the Pacific, the winter and spring, when the trades prevail, is the rainy season. In most other parts of the Archipelago it is the dry season. On the other hand, in the monsoon season, when the wind is from the southwest, the other, the westward-facing coasts, have a wet season, while the Pacific coasts are comparatively dry, or, at least, get much less rain. Thus at Manila there is practically no rain from November to June, while during the rest of the year the rainfall is heavy. There are places in southern Luzon and Samar where, owing to the fact that the islands are low, the air currents pass over them without losing much of their moisture, and hence carry it westward to be deposited elsewhere. Thus at localities in the Visayan Islands, west of these eastern coasts, the rainfall is abundant even in the winter season.

The total amount of rainfall ranges in different parts of the Archipelago from 40 to more than 100 inches, the precipitation being greatest

on the Pacific coast. At Manila it is about 60 inches, somewhat more than in the city of Washington, and of this four-fifths fall in the rainy season, between the first of July and the end of October. In these months rain falls nearly every day. The streets are flooded, the air is saturated with moisture, and things are covered with mould.

THE PEOPLE.

All the larger islands are populated more or less fully, and mainly by little brown people of the Malay race. The only people not of Malay origin are the Chinese, Japanese, Americans, and Europeans, and the Negritos, the original inhabitants, who are found in small numbers in the mountains of the interior of Luzon and two or three other islands.

These brown people, both civilized and uncivilized, are separated into many tribes, and they are of all grades and degrees of civilization, ranging from cultivated gentlemen educated in the universities of Europe to the wildest of head-hunters and the most timid of tree dwellers. Among them, found almost entirely in the cities and mainly in Manila, are some three score thousand Chinese, and a small sprinkling of Japanese and East Indians. The Chinese carry on most of the business and do most of the hard manual labor of the cities. The ruling element of the whole consists of a small nucleus of some ten or twelve thousand Americans.

A classification of the natives by tribes is a rough index to the degree of civilization. The Tagalogs, occupying, in the main, central Luzon, are the most powerful and highly civilized; the Ilocanos in north-western Luzon, the Bicolis in the southern part of the same island, and the Visayans in the central islands of Samar, Leyte, Cebu, Bohol, and Panay follow them closely in intelligence and civilization, as do also the smaller tribes of Pangasinan, Pampanga, Cagayan, and Zambales, in Luzon. These are the eight civilized tribes. Of these the Visayans are far the most numerous, numbering over 3,000,000 and forming 45 per cent of all. Next are the Tagalogs, who number 1,600,000, or 24 per cent, or nearly one-fourth. The Bicolis form 8 per cent, the Ilocanos and Pangasinans 7 per cent each, the Pampangans 4 per cent, the Cagayans 3 per cent, and the Zambalans only 1 per cent. These tribes live, in the main, on or near the coast or on navigable rivers. While not exactly a seafaring people, they spend much time upon the water, and a large proportion are fishermen. They travel mainly by boat, and the river transportation, by means of cascoes or large native cargo boats, is in their hands.

With the exception of the Moros, the wild tribes have been crowded back from the coast into the interior by the more civilized peoples, and are now found mainly in the mountains. The Moros occupy the coasts of southern Mindanao, and similarly have driven the wilder peoples into the interior of that great island. The Moros occupy also the whole of the Basilan, Jolo, Tapul, and Tawi-Tawi groups of islands.

Of the wild tribes, the Igorrotes of the mountains of Luzon and the Moros of the southern islands are the largest and most powerful. Besides these, there are many smaller tribes, especially in Mindanao, who are even wilder. The lowest of all the people of the islands are the Negritos, who, though widely scattered over the Archipelago, are

found mainly in the mountains of northern Luzon, and number only 25,000. Of all these wild tribes, the Igorrotes are probably the most promising. Physically they are strong, sturdy mountaineers, and are bright, honest, and industrious. While many of them are still hunting heads in intervillage feuds in the remote region known as Bontoc, others are earning their livelihood as packers, miners, and farmers. All the baggage, furniture, and supplies of all kinds for the infantile mountain capital in Benguet Province are packed on the backs of Igorrotes a distance of 25 miles and to an altitude of 5,000 feet. They number probably about 175,000.

The Moros are a very different people. They number about 275,000 and inhabit southern Mindanao and the Basilan, Joloi, Tapul, and Tawi-Tawi Island groups southwest of Mindanao. They are nominally Mohammedans, though their religion is not such as to interfere with their chosen modes of life. They were the Malay pirates of whom we read, who were the scourge of the Philippine coasts, raiding the towns, killing the men, and carrying off the women and children. Fierce and fearless in war, the Spaniards made little headway against them, and when Spain turned over the islands to us she left a prospective lot of trouble for us in this people; but by wisdom, patience, and a little sharp fighting we have established our supremacy, and there is peace in Moro land.

Each tribe has its own language, and even different parts of the same tribe may speak dialects which differ greatly from one another. Thus the Visayans of Cebu can not easily communicate with the Visayans of Leyte or Samar; hence there is great confusion of tongues. Only a small proportion of the Filipino people use the Spanish language; indeed, less than 10 per cent. There are thousands of villages in which no one can be found who speaks Spanish. The Spanish spoken by the common people is by no means pure Castilian, but is commonly known in the islands as Caribao Spanish. English is taught in all the schools, and the younger generation is making rapid progress in it. Everywhere the Filipino shows a desire to learn the language and a great pride in the progress made.

This people numbers 7,600,000, scattered over 115,000 square miles, in 14,000 cities and villages. There are very few rural inhabitants. The people are gregarious, probably ninety-nine out of every one hundred living in cities or villages, around which are scattered their plots of cultivated ground. Such a scattered distribution of the farming population as is seen in the United States is almost unknown in these islands.

GOVERNMENT.

The islands are organized into forty civil provinces, the city of Manila, and the semimilitary, semicivil province of Mindanao—forty-two in all. The civil provinces are divided into nearly one thousand pueblos, which resemble in certain ways our New England towns. These are in turn subdivided into nearly fourteen thousand barrios or villages.

The chief executive officer is the civil governor, who is aided by four Americans, who serve as executive heads of departments, with the title of secretary. These five, with three Filipinos, form the civil commission, which is the legislative body. Within these four departments

are numerous bureaus, which, with two exceptions, have Americans at their heads. The judiciary is mainly composed of Americans, but contains several able Filipino judges.

The officers of the provinces are governors, most of whom are Filipinos, and treasurers and supervisors, all of whom are Americans, and secretaries, all of whom are Filipinos. The governor, treasurer, and supervisor of each province form the governing board, which decides all matters of importance concerning the province. The chief officers of the pueblos are the presidentes, all of whom are Filipinos. The presidentes of the pueblos and the governors of provinces are elected by the qualified voters. The civil governor has the right to suspend or remove any officer, whether elected or appointed, and to fill the vacancy thus created.

Throughout, in the general government, provincial government, and pueblo government, the minor offices and the clerical positions are in the main filled by Filipinos, who make excellent clerks.

The city of Manila is governed by a commission appointed by the civil governor, much as the District of Columbia is governed.

INDUSTRIES.

Farming is carried on extensively, but by primitive methods and with primitive tools. The plows and harrows are of wood and are drawn by carabaos.

The agricultural products are very numerous, but most of them are of little importance. The chief products are tobacco, which is grown mainly in northern Luzon, and especially in the valley of Cagayan River, in the northeastern part of that island; abaca, or Philippine hemp, a species of banana palm, grown in southern Luzon, the Visayan Islands, and northern Mindanao, or wherever the rain is well distributed throughout the year; sugar, produced in various parts of the islands, but principally on Negros and Panay; rice, raised everywhere, but not in sufficient quantity to supply the people; cocoanuts, which are found everywhere near the coast; cacao and coffee. Besides these, bananas and mangoes are produced in abundance and are excellent, oranges and lemons are very few, and these few are wretched travesties of the California fruit. Indeed, it seems strange that, with a soil and climate that will produce almost everything, vegetables and fruits are so few and so poor. Fortunes await American market gardeners in the suburbs of Manila.

In most parts of the islands the lands are subdivided to an enormous extent, and the cultivated tracts are very small. A few thousand square feet, the area of an ordinary city house lot, are sufficient to provide the Tao and his family with all that they require—a few bananas, a little rice, and camotes or sweet potatoes. Their wants are limited and easily supplied. Furthermore, nearly everybody owns his place, or at least claims to own it. There are, however, many people holding land as squatters.

The Filipinos are great fishermen, and most of their flesh diet consists of fish. For their capture they use both traps and nets.

The manufactures of the islands are mainly carried on by hand in the homes of the people. Thus are made on hand looms by the women the beautiful and delicate fabrics known as sinamay, jusi, and pina. Thus are made the beautiful hats which one day may become as fash-

ionable and highly prized as the well-known Panama hat. Most of the lumber is sawn by hand with whipsaws.

In Manila, however, are some large factories, especially of cigars. There are also several lumber mills, a brewery, and numerous other establishments.

MEANS OF TRAVEL.

The transportation of the islands is mainly by steamers on the sea, coastwise, and by cascoes along the numerous short rivers and bayous. The traffic down the Pasig from the Laguna de Bay, that great lake in the interior of Luzon, surrounded by populous towns, is very great and is carried on these cargo boats. These are homes as well as cargo carriers, for the boatmen live on them with their families. On the boats of all kinds in and about Manila about 16,000 people live constantly.

Travel among the islands is mostly by sea. There are several lines of native boats which carry passengers and freight between Manila and the provinces, and the civil government possesses a number of boats known as coast-guard boats, which it uses for transportation of mail and passengers and its own freight. These coast-guard boats are very comfortable, although their accommodations are limited. The native boats are, however, extremely disagreeable for white people, and are to be avoided if possible.

Travel in the interior is much more difficult. The only railroad in the islands runs northward from Manila to Dagupan, a distance of 120 miles. It is a narrow-gauge road, owned by an English company, and is run at the dizzying rate of 15 miles an hour for express trains, and all its appointments are in proportion. The native travel on this road is enormous, and the freight movement is large.

A few good roads were built in the islands under Spanish régime, the longest of which runs from Dagupan northward along the coast to the north end of Luzon. Most of the bridges on this road are temporary affairs, built of bamboo, which go out with each wet season, and many of them have not in recent years been replaced. The road also, which originally was well constructed of macadam, is now badly washed in places. This is probably a sample of the condition of the best roads in the islands. Aside from a few such roads, the ways consist mostly of trails impassable to wheeled vehicles.

For passenger travel the common animal is the Filipino pony, which is a little larger than a Shetland pony, is rather stockily built, but well shaped and hardy, tough, free, and fast. They are used both for riding and driving and make excellent saddle animals.

The draft animal is the carabao, or water buffalo, much like an ox, with slow, ponderous movements, dark dun, almost black in color, the hide lightly covered with hair, and generally equipped with large, heavy horns. This animal is used not only in the country in all farming operations, but largely in the city for draft purposes. The weakness of the animal is his constitutional inability to go long without a bath, and when left to himself he is almost amphibious, spending a large part of his time in water. A few hours work in the sun without a bath is often fatal. The carabao is a Filipino animal in the sense that it recognizes only the Filipino as its master. It distinguishes a white man by his odor, and in many cases is excited by his presence. If at all viciously inclined, he is dangerous of approach, and instances have

been known of his attacking and killing white men. He is to the Filipino what the mule is to the plantation negro. They understand one another and get on together excellently.

HOTELS AND HOUSES.

The Philippine Islands are practically without hotels or any other public stopping place for travelers. True, there are hotels in Manila and in two or three provincial capitals, but elsewhere the traveler is obliged to throw himself upon the hospitality of the provincial officers, the presidente of a pueblo or the teniente of a barrio. If he hesitates to do this he can quarter himself upon the constabulary—if there is a constabulary post—where he may find a cot upon which to spread his blankets, and probably will get a meal.

The houses of the Filipinos differ with their social condition and with the different tribes and in different parts of the islands, but they may be generally classified as those built of nipa or its equivalent, and those of more durable material, such as wood, brick, or stone.

All the Filipino houses, wherever they are and whatever the material, are raised above the ground, generally to the height of a full story. The space beneath is commonly utilized as a stable for ponies or for a chicken house. The more durable houses are built of stone, brick, or wood, and are large and roomy, with plenty of window space. They are commonly entered from beneath by a broad, winding staircase, which lands the visitor in the middle of a large hall running the full length of the house. This hall is 20 feet or more in width, and lighted by windows at the ends. One end of it is commonly the dining room and the other the sitting room, while on either side of it, and communicating with it by doors, are the bedrooms. The furniture is scanty and simple, consisting generally of a round table and easy, cane-seated chairs. The walls are double, the spaces between them forming galleries 4 or 5 feet in width, these galleries being entered through broad openings commonly curtained. In the outer wall are windows and blinds running independently of one another in grooves. The windows are very commonly glazed in small panes, 3 or 4 inches square, of shell instead of glass, which are sufficient to admit light, but nothing can be seen through them. At night everything is shut tight, windows and blinds, either from fear of night air or of spirits, which stalk abroad after sunset. The floors of these houses are generally made of the native hardwoods, are often very beautiful, and are a great source of pride to the possessor, who keeps them well oiled and waxed.

The roofs of this class of houses are of tiles, tin, or, among the poorer ones, of thatch, nipa, or cogon grass.

The houses classed as nipa are made of several different kinds of material, but in the main of bamboo and nipa palm. The frame, which is commonly very simple, is built of bamboo poles, the walls are made of a coarse mat woven of nipa, while the roof is thatched with the same material, nipa being a palm which is found abundantly in swampy places. Sometimes the sides, as well as the roof, are thatched with nipa instead of being made with this coarse mat. Where nipa can not be had, cogon, a coarse grass, is often used. The windows are mere openings, closed by shutters of nipa mat or of thatch. The floors are openwork, made of strips of small bamboo tied down to

the floor beams. Probably nine-tenths of the houses in the islands are of nipa, or some equivalent plant, built upon much the same plan as above. The erection of a nipa house is a very simple matter, requiring only a few days' labor and costing only \$100 or \$200. Some months ago a square half mile of the Tondo district of Manila, consisting almost entirely of nipa huts, was burned. A month later most of them were restored. The nipa house is entered not by a stairway but by a ladder from the outside. The rooms are commonly small and the people live very closely. The houses are, of course, only one story in height. Indeed, throughout the islands the buildings, as a rule, are low, most of the residences containing only one story, while business buildings rarely rise to more than three.

FOOD AND DRINK.

In the Philippine Islands no white man drinks raw water—that is, unless he courts cholera or dysentery. Whenever possible he boils it or distills it, preferably the latter. In Manila is a large distilling plant, carried on by the government, for the use of its civil employees. The natives are by no means as careful, and most of them drink the water as nature provides it and attempt to avert cholera by prayers and charms.

The native lives principally upon rice and fish, with a little fruit and vegetables. This low diet is by no means satisfactory to the Europeans and Americans in the islands, which do not produce at present the kinds of food which they demand; consequently the table of the American is supplied mostly with frozen meat, brought from Australia or the States, and with canned vegetables and fruits. Fresh milk, except from caribao, is practically unknown in the islands, there being only half a dozen milch cows in Manila, and the necessity is supplied by condensed milk and canned cream. The islands produce very few fruits which are palatable to Americans.

Since the Spanish times the prices of most commodities and the wages of most kinds of labor have doubled and trebled, not only in Manila but in most parts of the Philippines, and rents, especially in Manila, have soared skyward. Houses which five years ago were rented for 25 pesos a month now cost two or three times as many dollars. A group of houses recently built of nipa, containing 4 rooms each, were rented long before their completion at the rate of \$36 gold per month, the annual rent of the house amounting to more than twice the cost of the structure.

PHILIPPINE CURRENCY.

Until recently the money in use in the islands was what is called "Mex.," the unit of which was the Mexican dollar or peso, which had varying values in gold, ranging from 40 to 50 cents. Heretofore, during American occupation, American money has been used to some extent and the natives have thoroughly learned the distinction between the two and their relative values. Until the introduction of the Conant dollar "Mex." was the common medium of exchange and a somewhat bulky and heavy one. A lady starting on a shopping expedition found it necessary to place in her carriage a bag full of pesos. Fifty or a hundred dollars in pesos, the equivalent of \$20 or \$40 gold, made about

as heavy a load as she would care to carry from the carriage into the shop. Often upon returning from a shopping expedition she brought back less weight with her than she carried. Very little paper money was in use. One would occasionally receive bills on the Hongkong and Shanghai bank, or on a Filipino bank, but they were generally so filthy that the heavy silver was preferable. While the average Filipino is reputed to be somewhat light-fingered, few people even take the trouble to lock up their money, for it is commonly believed that "Mex." is too nearly worthless to be stolen.

At the time of the introduction of the Conant dollar American money was well known to the natives, not only in Manila but throughout the islands generally. Even the newsboys and bootblacks knew the difference between Mexican and American money, and made change accordingly. An American dime bought two newspapers, while a Mexican 10-cent piece bought but one.

PRESENT PEACE IN THE ISLANDS.

The question has been frequently asked, "Is the war in the Philippines over?" This would seem to indicate a great misapprehension concerning the situation in our Pacific islands. Many people seem to suppose that outside of a few garrisoned posts it is dangerous for white people to travel about. Nothing could be further from the truth. The fact is that in the portion of the islands inhabited by the civilized peoples—i. e., three-fourths of their area at least—a white man is as safe in traveling or living as in Arizona or Colorado or Montana. He may go about with perfect freedom. Not only that, but the people are ready and anxious to show him hospitality. The Filipino from whom he asks a night's lodging feels highly honored and gives him of his best. The men salute him as he passes, and the children cry "Buenas dias," and are very proud if their salutation is returned. Among the wild people the situation is much the same, although here it is better to send notice of one's coming in advance and to bear some sort of credentials. With these precautions there is no more danger than in traveling on the reserve of a tribe of friendly Indians.

To illustrate the situation, the work of the provincial treasurers is instanced. Each of these (they are all Americans) is required by his business to visit every pueblo of his province, and such a trip may involve hundreds of miles of travel overland on horseback or by carromata. So far as known, no treasurer has ever been molested, although he often carries much money about him. The provincial supervisors, also Americans, are obliged to travel everywhere, as are many other civil officers of the government. At the present time Americans are all over the islands on one errand or another, public or private. No one thinks of danger or provides against it beyond, perhaps, putting a revolver in his pocket.

There are ladrones still at large but only a few, nearly all having been killed or are in prison serving long sentences, and the islands are now practically free from ladronism. Ladrones, or, as they were formerly called, tusilanes, are simply robbers. The Philippines have always had them, and they were just as abundant and troublesome in the days of Spanish domination as they have been since the flag of Spain came down. They are often organized into gangs, and their com-

mon plan of operation is to shoot up a village at night, rob the houses, and perhaps hold some of the people for ransom. Their operations are always directed against their own people. They never interfere with Americans. The big, husky, efficient American soldier has taught even the worst of them that it won't pay. Two or three Americans have been killed in fights with ladrones, but not one, so far as known, has been intentionally interfered with.

Ladronism reached its maximum early last spring, when a dozen provinces, some of them near Manila, were infested with them. The native constabulary, with white officers, have been most efficient in chasing them down and breaking up their bands. The troops were not called out, as they were not needed. At present there are scarcely any ladrones left, only a few in Albay Province, in southern Luzon, where they have not been pursued with as much vigor as elsewhere, but recent advices indicate that the constabulary have since destroyed their bands.

The war has been over for more than two years. The people are pacified, quiet, and well disposed. They have the utmost respect for Americans, a respect rapidly ripening into confidence and affection. This condition has come about in spite of famine, the loss of their farm animals through rinderpest and surra, and a severe epidemic of cholera.

WILL THE ISLANDS PAY?

Another question frequently asked is, "Will possession of the islands pay us?" In the first place it is not a question which we should even ask ourselves. The question of profit in any form should not enter into the matter. When we took the islands from Spain we assumed a duty, that of reducing them to order and of maintaining them as good neighbors to the other peoples of the earth. We might have shirked the duty, we might have abandoned them to become a Venezuela or a Haiti, or we might have turned over the work of patrolling and protecting to some other nation, such as Germany, who was eager to exploit them, or to Great Britain, who might have been induced to accept the responsibility for them. If, however, we had been weak enough to have thus shirked our responsibility, I think that everyone of us would have lost self-respect, as he certainly would have lost pride in his country. It is not, therefore, a question whether the islands will pay us or not, for no one should stop to consider whether it will pay him to do what is right.

But I think they will pay us in more ways than one, and in one way at least they are paying us already—that is, as just suggested, in self-respect and in national pride. We have unhesitatingly assumed our duties and are fulfilling them. We have reduced the people to order, and have put them under civil government. In our colonial administration we have accepted the best of the English methods—and they are far the best heretofore in use—and have improved upon them from the start in many ways; first of all, by giving this people as great a measure of self-government as they can carry on. Thus far our colonial administration, although our first attempt, and therefore somewhat experimental, has proven eminently successful, and it increases one's pride in his citizenship to note the manner in which we are carrying out this somewhat difficult work.

Even in the matter of dollars and cents it is probable that the

islands will ultimately pay us; not that this is a matter of importance, for when a question of duty is involved a great nation like ours can not afford to debate cost or profit, even if it be millions or hundreds of millions of dollars. When we see our people rapidly obtaining control of the commerce of the Pacific and find our Government paper money, mere promises to pay, received as readily as gold in the Far East, in China, and in Japan, we can realize what our advent in the Philippines has done already and what it is leading to. Because of our possession of the Philippines we shall become the dominant power of the Pacific, both politically and commercially.

O